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ABSTRACT

Guidelines concerning publishing in scholarly journals, with emphasis on internationally known journals, are provided. Much of the information applies to the social sciences and education and, to a lesser extent, to the humanities. An overview of the workings of the publication enterprise is included for the new author, along with a list of 10 reasons for publishing. Attention is directed to the main types of articles, journals, and publishers; the roles of editors and copy editors; and common procedures and requirements for publishing in the journals. Copyrights, clearances, and charges for the author are also covered. Manuscript production is considered, with attention to writing the article and the abstract, developing the title, using nonsexist language, footnotes, references and the bibliography, word processing, and internal review. Additional topics include submitting the article to the journal, submitting an article to other journals if it is rejected by the first, galley and page proofs, offprints, and grievances. A checklist summarizing major points about manuscript preparation is presented that covers substantive, literary, and mechanical aspects of the process. (SW)

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D. Royce Sadler

HE 017 328

green guide
No 2

UP THE PUBLICATION ROAD

A guide to publishing in scholarly journals for academics, researchers, and graduate students in education and the social sciences.

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Australia

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CONTENTS

I	INTRODUCTION		1
		Benefits of Publication	2
		Goal Setting	3
II	KNOWING THE FIELD		4
	1	Types of Articles	4
	2	Rejoinders, Replies, and Rebuttals	4
	3	Book Chapters	6
	4	Types of Journals	7
	5	Editors	8
	6	Copy Editing	9
	7	Publishers	9
	8	Copyright	10
	9	Clearances	11
	10	Charges	11
	11	Refereeing (Reviewing) Procedures	13
	12	Foul Play	15

III PRODUCING THE MANUSCRIPT 16

1 Writing 16

2 Title and Abstract 17

3 Nonsexist Language 18

4 Footnotes 18

5 References and Bibliography 18

6 Word Processing 19

7 Internal Review 20

IV OFFERING THE PRODUCT 22

1 Submitting 22

2 Multiple Submissions 24

3 Sequential Submissions 24

4 Galley and Page Proofs 26

5 Offprints 27

6 Grievances 27

7 Coping with Rejections 28

8 A Checklist 29

V FINAL WORD 31

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY 32

FOREWORD

In his report for the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission, Academic Development Units, Professor Richard Johnson said, in reference to knowledge about educational matters:

> There exists a substantial body of knowledge on many of these matters and there are techniques for finding answers to the questions. However, just because the body of knowledge is substantial, just because the processes of higher education are complex, it cannot be expected that the academic pursuing research and teaching in another discipline or the administrator coping with the day-to-day and year-to-year urgencies of an institution can master or keep up with the range of contemporary thinking and research results.

While that is certainly correct it is also true that most staff in tertiary education are interested in carrying out their various tasks and responsibilities well.

To this end many of them would appreciate some guidance on one or other of these tasks and responsibilities. But staff do not have time for a detailed study of the literature on these issues. The other reason for the frustration of staff who go in search for guidance is that many of the publications available are written by people who are conscious of the academic tradition of writing and hence prepare treatises that attempt to be comprehensive, argued in detail and fully documented. This is not what staff need - they need some ideas and pointers that they can relate to their particular circumstances and some brief guidance to further reading if they so desire.

The publications in this HERDSA Green Guide Series are explicitly designed to meet these needs. They are relatively short (about 30 pages), inexpensive, easy to read, and concentrate on supplying ideas rather than a fully argued comprehensive cover of an area. Their bibliographies are deliberately not comprehensive but are designed to be helpful - these are not academic studies of an area but, as the series title indicates, guides.

Each Guide is designed to cover one aspect of a staff member's tasks and responsibilities. Each Guide has been commissioned by the HERDSA Publications Committee and refereed but the content is the responsibility of the particular author(s) and does not necessarily represent the views of the Committee or the Society.

We hope that staff will find the Guides useful and welcome comments on individual Guides and on other areas that could be covered by similar volumes.

HERDSA Publications Committee

UP THE PUBLICATION ROAD

A guide to publishing in scholarly journals for academics, researchers, and graduate students in education and the social sciences.

PREFACE

This guide is about publishing in scholarly journals -- how the system works, and how to help the system work for you. The sources have been (i) articles and books about writing and publishing, written by authors and editors, (ii) discussions with journal editors, members of editorial boards, and reviewers, and (iii) my own experiences as a contributor.

The information has been gathered over a long period, incidentally rather than systematically, in the first instance for my own edification. This more coherent form served as the basis for a research seminar on scholarly publishing in the Department of Education, University of Queensland. However, the guide remains essentially a statement of my personal philosophy, and is prescriptive in its tone. I welcome readers' comments (positive or negative) as to the coverage and usefulness of the guide, the format of its presentation, and the accuracy of its portrayal of current practice.

D.R.S.
March, 1984

I INTRODUCTION

This guide has two main aims. The first is to explain to the neophyte (rather than the experienced) author something of the publication enterprise, how and why it works the way it does. The emphasis is on articles submitted to journals of international repute. Such journals make systematic efforts to control the quality of what is published in their pages. Much of what is contained here applies to the social sciences (especially to education, my own field), and to a lesser extent the humanities.

The second aim is to reassure potential authors that for the most part publication is not a closed shop or a conspiratorial network impossible to break into. A new author with a quality piece usually has the edge over a renowned author with an indifferent or bad piece. There is no need to feel especially apprehensive or intimidated. The best route to publication follows two simple rules: have something worthwhile to say, and say it well.

In assembling this guide two assumptions have been made.

1. Publication is an orderly enterprise, and the rules that govern the procedures can be discovered. Rules are necessary if the system is to function properly, and are intended to make for fair means of quality control and for smooth transition from the author's manuscript to a printed journal article. The sensible strategy is to find out what these rules are and appreciate the necessity for them.

2. Author, editor, and publisher all have a vested interest in publishing high quality material expeditiously. The quality of what is published affects both the author's reputation and the viability of the journal. Both of these are important, especially in tight economic circumstances. The business of publishing is for the most part characterized by good will, honesty, and mutual trust.

Benefits of Publication

The need to communicate, to share insights, and to learn from others is an indispensable element of scholarship. Publication completes the research act. However, not all academics see journal publishing in a positive light. Many experience intense peer and institutional pressures to publish for what are in reality spurious reasons. Others think that the recent growth in electronic and microform alternatives make the academic journal an anachronism. At present, print media show no signs of imminent demise. Indeed the reverse seems to be the case because of the simplicity, reliability, and portability of the printed page. It is well, then, to reiterate the benefits of publication. Here are ten good reasons for publishing.

1. Publication places your work under public, professional scrutiny.

2. Publication identifies you with a domain of research or scholarship, and facilitates contact with other professionals working in the same area, even if they have published little themselves.

3. Publication demands highly disciplined writing, and therefore thinking. Writing itself facilitates thinking, helping you to clarify your logic. Reviewers' reports, even if negative, can provide you with valuable new insights into a problem.

4. Publication contributes to the scholarly literature in a field. In teaching, most academics set great store by published documents.

5. Publication reaches a wide international audience, from 500 to 15,000 depending on the journal, with many in the 2,000 to 5,000 range. To find out the circulation of any journal published in the range. To find out the circulation of any journal published in the U.S.A., look for the annual declaration printed in one of the issues.

6. Good journals are often widely and professionally indexed or abstracted. This gives even non-subscribers access to your work. Furthermore you can see how your article is being used, and the impact it has, by consulting citation indexes.

7. Publication in journals is economical. Apart from any research costs, the costs of actually producing the journal article are very low compared with dissemination through conferences, or through preprints or technical reports produced in your department and mailed out.

8. Publication enhances your academic reputation, that of your department, and that of your college or university. (Some

indexes provide listings by institution.) Although there are no direct financial rewards in publishing an article, there are often considerable indirect rewards in terms of one's career: appointment, promotion or tenure.

9. Publications make you more credible to your students -- they see you as a person who has something scholarly to offer, not as a mere retailer of other people's ideas.

10. Publication is FUN; you can get a lot of personal satisfaction out of it.

Goal Setting

Unless you are interested purely in volume of production, set your sights high but at the same time set yourself a realistic timescale. Suppose you want to produce an article of top quality on an important issue for a premier journal. The time taken to carry out an investigation and write an article varies so much from field to field that general guidelines are impossible. But be warned that conceptual or theoretical articles typically have long incubation periods, years perhaps. If your commitments outside research and scholarship (say for teaching or administration) are heavy, you may have to count on spending three years working in an area, thinking all the issues through, clarifying your own perspective, then trying to communicate it. Do not underestimate the time it takes seminal minds to crystallize a theory. There is still a premium on good thinking.

If you can take time, quality work can be done on a low budget. Access to grants, computerized library searches, or research assistance often does speed up the pace, but even if you are forced to do most of the footwork yourself there are at least three positive aspects to it. First, you retain intimacy with and total control over all aspects of the study. Second, you spend none of your time briefing an assistant. Third, while it is true that doing your own photocopying, thumbing through citation indexes, and filling out inter-library loan requests is drudgery if done all the time, a little of each adds variety and gives your mind some relief.

Set yourself a target date for completing the first draft and stick to it. Then work towards refining and polishing it. If you get bored, blocked, or intellectually muddled, put the article on ice for a few weeks and work on something else. Then come back to it for a fresh start. The secret is to keep chipping away. Better to complete one fine article every couple of years than to start a dozen and finish none.

II KNOWING THE FIELD

This chapter is intended to provide background information on journal publication. It contains descriptions of the main types of articles, journals, and publishers, the roles of editors and copy editors, and common procedures and requirements for publishing in refereed journals.

1 Types of Articles

Regular journal articles fall into one of three primary classes:

Status descriptions. These report on the state or condition of some phenomenon and consist of material that aspires to the status of fact. Articles emphasize results, conclusions, confirming or disconfirming evidence for a theory, proofs, and outcomes of surveys, experiments, or other empirical investigations.

Methodology. Articles in this class contain descriptions of generalizable techniques, plans, algorithms, methods, strategies, or prescriptions for investigating or solving problems, or getting answers to questions.

Conceptualizations: This class includes perspectives, arguments, views, interpretations, opinions, models, propositions, theoretical analyses, mental surveys, ideas, developments, hypotheses, and integrative studies.

The descriptions of the three classes have deliberately been left broad, avoiding as far as possible terms with special meanings in particular disciplines. Thus an experiment on teaching would come under the first, a philosophical or historical article under the last. The key point is to locate the article you are working on within a genre, and to ensure that its content and style conform to the accepted pattern for that genre. Experimental studies in the first class, for example, are often reported in a standard format.

2 Rejoinders, Replies, and Rebuttals

A rejoinder is a second-order article, in which one author takes issue with what another author has written. Which of the above three terms is used depends partly on the journal, partly on the nature of the response.

Advantages

1. Rejoinders save the author writing the preliminary scene-setting development, because that will have been done by the original author. This means that the rejoinder is usually shorter and addressed directly to the same points.

2. Rapid publication is likely (often in the next-but-one issue) for the author who is quick off the mark. This often means that the author can effectively jump the queue.

Disadvantages

1. Good debate is enormously useful, and there is not enough of it taking place in print. But there is a need to ensure that a rejoinder does not become parasitic and nitpicking. Other authors are (mostly) entitled to their own opinions, even if these are wrong! It is a bad habit to keep looking for things to object to.

2. There is a need for quick action, to strike while the iron is hot. In most cases there is no point in writing a reply a year or two after original publication.

If the opportunity to write a rejoinder presents itself, try, in disagreeing with another author's work, to put up a properly argued replacement, a genuine alternative. This is preferable to simply showing where or how a particular argument is deficient, or denigrating the article generally. Good rebuttals often result from an author's having been working along a different line (perhaps writing an article) for some time, only to find that a different perspective is suddenly published. The second author can capitalize on the situation. It means galvanizing oneself into action immediately in order to seize the advantage. Bad rebuttals often do no more than dredge up an old argument. If the opposite argument currently exists, a polite letter drawing the original author's attention to the fact is probably sufficient, and might make you a friend. But do not waste your energy trying to make a publishable reply out of it.

Avoid personal attacks. The rebuttal is of someone's article, not the person. Normally, rejoinders are fully reviewed, and one reviewer may well be the author of the original article. Double check before you submit that angry and emotive language has been eliminated. Send the original author a copy of your rejoinder as a matter of courtesy before publication (but perhaps after acceptance). Some editors as a matter of policy notify the original author in any case, and give opportunity for a reply to your rejoinder, again subject to editorial review, and oftentimes a strict word limit. Courteously carried out, public to-and-fro communications are to everyone's benefit.

3 Book Chapters

This section refers to original article-length chapters commissioned by a scholar who is trying to put a book together on a theme. It does not refer to works compiled by an editor from previously published articles. The concern here is less with procedures than with the book chapter as an alternative to the standard journal article.

Typically, the scholar-editor writes to a number of other scholars in the same field seeking expressions of interest in a proposed book. Unless the compiler has a firm commitment from a publisher, the book has to be submitted for detailed consideration. This takes time. Even then nothing may come of it, and the manuscript may have to be hawked around. The quality of a volume depends on the quality of all, not just some, of the papers. Uniformly high quality is not always easy to achieve, even with authors of high reputation. The compiler clearly has a difficult job getting enough papers, all by the deadline, to make a book and ensure evenness in quality. A small proportion of weak articles will make the book difficult or impossible to place with a publisher. Meanwhile, time goes by, authors get impatient, and the material goes out of date. Some authors have waited two years for a book to come out, only to find it has to be scratched. At that point the author has the choice of abandoning the paper, or updating it and submitting it to a journal. Moral: if you do not want to get your fingers burnt, insist that the compiler has an agreement in writing with a publisher before you commit yourself, or have the compiler agree to your submitting the article to a journal if a contract has not been signed within six months of the closing date.

Partly because of unevenness in quality, or the lack of sufficient coherence among the papers, books of original articles are often reviewed poorly. Furthermore, the contents are typically not indexed or abstracted, and even if publication is guaranteed, the publication date may be years away.

There is, however, a positive side as well. During the period when a subfield in a discipline is developing, articles that describe new findings or lines of thought sometimes have difficulty getting published in the established journals because of overly cautious or protective gatekeepers. A collection of commissioned papers in book form is a way around this obstacle, particularly if t... papers are well written so as to complement one another. For a beginning author, it can be academically prestigious to contribute a chapter to a book which becomes central to the developing subfield, especially if the book is prescribed as a college or university text.

4 Types of Journals

Most journals can be put into one of three classes. A few are difficult to classify either because they have characteristics of two or more classes or because they are of a quite different genre.

House journals. These comprise official organs and bulletins of professional associations. Often they contain news of the association, notices of elections and meetings, some advertisements (commercial or positions vacant) and one or two feature articles per issue. The primary audience is the association membership. Although the articles may be of high quality, they are often about localized or less enduring issues and written in a journalistic style. Strong points about house journals: (i) they often enjoy a high circulation, especially if subscription is a benefit of membership, and (ii) they constitute an important avenue for topical issues to be discussed. Disadvantages: (i) editors are often hunting for copy, in which case the quality may be uneven, and (ii) they are often not indexed, nor subscribed to by libraries.

Professional or practitioner journals. The primary audience for these is the body of practising professionals. The articles often are of the "how-to" type, presenting arguments for doing something a certain way, or interpreting research findings for the practitioner, or they may be case studies of innovations or programs. Contributors tend to be practitioners or academics.

Research or scholarly journals. These contain articles written mainly by academics for other academics, have fully established refereeing procedures, are widely indexed or abstracted in whole or in part, and play a key role in defining the boundaries and direction of a discipline. Articles often have a higher level of abstract or theoretical content than in the other two classes. Competition is usually high because of the prestige attached to publishing in them. Rejection rates for unsolicited manuscripts are often in the 80% to 95% range in the social sciences (which compares with 20% to 40% in the physical sciences, where the tendency is for shorter articles, more outlets, more specialization, and in some disciplines, a declining pool of articles).

Although the above classification is useful in deciding where your article would most appropriately be sent, it does not follow that all of the most influential articles in a field are published in the most highly academic journals. There are many exceptions. Any article that begins, say, a methodological revolution in a discipline may not get past the formal gatekeepers.

Choose your journal with great care. Information for contributors, which may include a statement of the journal's scope and the types of articles that are acceptable, together with some technical information such as the number of copies required and the referencing style, is usually printed in each issue, often inside the back or front cover. In addition, many journals have a full

style sheet and an expanded statement of editorial policy available to potential authors on request. Probably the best guide as to what the different journals publish is to be had by studying the types of articles published during the past year.

Look especially for scope statements and publication policies that may have been published early in the life of the journal (perhaps in the first issue), or are published periodically (perhaps annually or once every three years). When a new editor takes over the reins there may or may not be a change of policy, emphasis, or direction. If so, the first issue under the new editor (or the last one under the old) is likely to contain the revised statement.

Note that some journals do not accept unsolicited manuscripts. All of their material is commissioned by the editors. Some journals publish thematic issues only, in which case the planned themes are announced well in advance. A few journals publish a fixed proportion of thematic issues, the remainder being open to general unsolicited manuscripts that conform to the journal's aims.

5 Editors

Most editors are persons of integrity, with feelings like the rest of us, high levels of altruism, and dedication to their fields of scholarship. They receive no remuneration for their editorial efforts, but have to fit it in with their own teaching and research programs. Unfortunately, a small proportion of editors are possessive of their academic territory, or are given to prejudice and favour, and operate as part of an invisible college of scholars in a cosy club atmosphere.

Editors have to orchestrate many things at once: one issue going through press, another being finalized for typesetting, and another being compiled. Meanwhile, manuscripts keep arriving (at an average rate of one or two every day for good journals) and have to be screened. Reviewers have to be selected, manuscript copies despatched, incoming reviewers' reports read, decisions arrived at, and letters written to authors.

Editors get very little fan mail, few letters of appreciation. They do sometimes get difficult letters from dissatisfied authors, and abusive letters from irate ones. They are not infallible. They make mistakes and sometimes smart under them, especially when competing journals publish vanguard articles they once rejected. In spite of the pressures under which they operate, many editors <u>still</u> find the time to congratulate an author on a brilliant piece, and to let down gently an author of a rejected piece by including an encouraging word. All in all, good editors deserve respect.

6 Copy Editors

This term applies to the preparation of the manuscript for the typesetter. The copy editor's job is to make to manuscript conform to the style of the publishing house in respect of spelling, the format of citations and references, and the use of special symbols or signs. You can save the copy editor a lot of work if you read the detailed instructions for authors as to the publisher's style. The typesetter is skilled at literal conversion from manuscript to printed form, and does not have time to puzzle out whether "O" is the numeral zero or the letter oh during typesetting. Such distinctions are noted by the copy editor.

In order to make the copy editor's job easier, the manuscript should be expertly typed, on good white paper, double spaced with at least 40mm left hand margin and 25mm on the other three sides. A dash in the middle of a sentence should be typed as a double hyphen. Avoid hyphenation at the ends of lines, otherwise the copy editor has to mark each broken word for the typesetter to show that hyphenation is not mandatory. Typed lines that consist of whole words only will vary considerably in length, but that is of no consequence to either the copy editor or the typesetter.

The copy editor is occasionally the journal editor, but mostly not. The best copy editors will also correct your occasional lapses in spelling, punctuation, agreement (subject and verb), and the use of conjunctions. However, the copy editor does not make substantive changes to the content of the manuscript. No material is deleted, no sentences have their sense altered, no meanings are clarified. Those matters are negotiated between the journal editor and the author before or immediately after acceptance.

7 Publishers

In broad terms, publishers fall into three classes. The first class comprises professional (including research) associations that publish their own journals. The journal's editor or associate editor may be the copy editor as well. Second are commercial publishers of scholarly journals, who are frequently publishers of books in the same fields. Their aim is obviously to make a profit, so that subscriptions rates are typically higher than for journals published by associations. An advantage of commercial publishers is that journals often have high visibility because of general and direct mailing publicity. Advertising a stable of journals in a discipline is much less expensive per title than separate advertising. University presses make up the third class, and in some instances the journals are published on a break-even basis, overheads being subsidized by the other activities of the press. Few university presses make a spectacular profit; they see themselves as providing, at least in part, a necessary outlet for scholarly works.

There have been some recent trends towards joint publishing,

whereby a commercial publisher takes on the copy editing, production, subscription, and distribution functions on behalf of a sponsoring professional association. This is a neat division of labour, and association members continue to receive the journal as a benefit of membership.

From the author's point of view, there is nothing much to choose among the classes of publishers. The quality of a journal, apart from the aesthetics, continues to depend solely on the integrity of the journal editor and the referees.

8 Copyright

There are two aspects to be considered. The first is the copyright of an article that you, as author, have written. The second is your use of material already copyrighted.

Submission of a manuscript to an editor normally is taken to imply the following: (i) that you, as author, own copyright in the text, (ii) that it has not been previously published in the English language, (iii) that the article is not under consideration by any other publication, (iv) that the work contains nothing that is libelous, obscene, unlawful, or an invasion of privacy, and (v) that if the work is by multiple authors, whoever submits the article is empowered to do so by the other authors. For journals published in many countries, submission of an article and acceptance by the journal effects transfer of copyright.

Specifically, the transfer usually gives the publisher the right to (i) print, publish, or in any other way reproduce the article in any language anywhere in the world, (ii) license a third party to publish the work in reprint form, or as part of a book, anthology, or abstract, and (iii) negotiate translation rights. In return, the publisher normally grants certain rights to the author, subject to proper credit being given to the publisher as to the form of the original publication. These subsidiary rights of authors usually include (i) republication of the article in any book of which the author is the only or principal editor, (ii) free use of all or any part of the article in future works including lectures, press releases, and reviews, and (iii) the right to reproduce the article for the author's own purposes, provided the copies are not offered for sale.

For all journals published in the U.S.A., the author will be sent a copyright form to effect transfer of copyright to the publisher after reviewers give their recommendations to publish. It must be completed before further work on the manuscript can proceed. Once the copyright forms are signed and returned, the publisher takes whatever formal steps are necessary to effect ownership.

The second aspect of copyright is the use by an author of part of a work already copyrighted. Normally an author can quote a sentence or two, verbatim, from another work. However, if the

amount exceeds about 100 words (sometimes more), permission to quote or to reproduce tables or figures should be sought and obtained. The exact amount and conditions are not fixed, but are controlled by the "fair use" provisions of copyright laws. It is the responsibility of the author, not the publisher, to take care of this aspect. If in doubt as to whether permission should be sought, write to the publisher of the original work. The original author may or may not be notified.

9 Clearances

Certain government agencies, and some bodies that award research grants, do not give the author the right to transfer copyright to a publisher. Either the agency has to sign the release, or the document is deemed to be in the public domain and not subject to copyright. Where the research involves human subjects, social scientists are often under an ethical obligation to negotiate the findings of the research with the subjects, especially when minority groups are investigated or persons could possible be identified by virtue of any positions they hold.

Quite apart from copyright, some research grants are made on the condition that the researcher will not publish any material at all arising out of the research without the consent of the granting body. Other grants give the right to publish any methodological material, and any general non-confidential information. Still others leave the rights to publication unstated, a situation which is unsatisfactory in the long run. Failure to have the rights of different parties clarified at the point of receiving the grant may, in the rare instance, lead to litigation in the courts if things go wrong.

Check the conditions of any research contract carefully, and see whether you need to get special clearance from the funding agency. If you do, complete the article and forward it to the agency along with information as to where and when you expect it to be published, and who the likely audience will be. The agency may simply check the accuracy of the content from an official point of view and return it to you, stipulating that the source of funding be acknowledged in a footnote.

10 Charges

Publishing in schclarly journals is not financially rewarding, but neither is it costly for an author. For the majority of top-rate journals, there are no costs at all, except the cost of postage (and revisions at the galley stage, if any) and the costs of getting diagrams or photographs into photo-ready form. But there are three notable EXCEPTIONS.

1. Compulsory page charges. The author typically receives quick favourable reviews, the necessary contracts to sign, and an advance invoice for $X per estimated page of the final article.

Publication is conditional upon this charge being paid. While there are undoubtedly a few journals who operate this system quite honourably, there is a fine line between this practice and what is called in the book trade "vanity publishing", in which an author effectively pays to have the article published, the journal name simply giving an air of respectability. Sometimes the page charges amount to hundreds of dollars for the article, yet the only clue about possible expense is contained in a sentence somewhere in the "Notice to Contributors", to the effect that "the author may be called upon to defray some of the costs of publication".

2. Voluntary page charges. In trying to make ends meet, some journals sponsored by professional associations levy a page charge, the payment or nonpayment of which does not affect publication. Typically, such journals state the exact amount of the charge in the "Notice to Contributors", and suggest that the author arrange for the research grant or institution to pay them if possible. The journal does not expect page charges to come out of the author's own pocket, and the practice is a reasonable one.

A second form of voluntary payment allows an author to jump the queue by paying an amount equal to the cost of enlarging the next issue so that the article can be included. This practice means that no article is delayed, but it does mean that authors who can afford it get accelerated publication. In disciplines where priority matters this practice is unfair. Where priority is meaningless, the practice is probably harmless.

3. Submission fee. The cost of having an article refereed is significant, usually in the range of $30-$60. These figures assume that the editor is an academic (not paid for editorial services), that there is part-time paid secretarial support, and that the editor's institution pays the overheads (room, heating, lighting). The figure refers to each article submitted, not to each one accepted.

A few journals require payment of a modest fee (of the order of $30) at the time of submission to cover the costs of refereeing. This has two effects: it makes the reviewing procedure cost-free to the organization, and it reduces the number of inferior manuscripts submitted. For all articles accepted, the fee is refunded. Nobody makes any money out of this arrangement and it saves reviewers' time, or at least ensures that authors willing to risk the fee have taken a little more care in getting the manuscript prepared. Again, a harmless practice, especially as members of the sponsoring association may have the fee reduced or waived as a benefit of membership.

11 Refereeing (Reviewing) Procedures

The primary purpose of refereeing or reviewing (the term used depends on the journal) is quality control. The editor and publisher have to be sensitive to the market in order to satisfy readers and retain subscriptions, and in addition to attract ne subscribers. This is especially so in today's conditions of rising production costs, cutbacks (in real terms) in library allocations for periodicals, and a decrease in the number of personal subscriptions taken out by academics. Similarly, the author has to convince an editor and two or more reviewers that the article addresses an important topic, and that it is expertly put together.

Given these constraints, and steady pressure from the large number of academics seeking to publish their work, the job of the editor and reviewers is to strike a balance among quality, quantity, and publication lag. Editors naturally want as high a quality as possible, but if too high a standard is set there will be too few articles to fill the pages. If the pool of submitted papers starts to dry up, the rejection rate, and to some extent the quality, drop also. If papers are accepted at a rate greater than can be published, the publication lag increases. Six months to a year is acceptable to authors; any longer is too long. If the pool increases through more authors seeking publication or a surge of interest in a particular field, editors can afford to be fussier, picking only the best papers, and insisting on revisions as necessary.

The sequence of events after the editor receives your manuscript goes as follows:

STEP 1 Initially, all papers are read by the editor in order to get an overall impression of the suitability of the paper for the journal and of the quality of the paper itself. In this initial screening, some 15-40% of papers are summarily rejected because they are inappropriate for the journal. Occasionally the editor may suggest a more appropriate journal, but the implication is clear. The author has skipped doing the homework.

STEP 2 The article is sent to two reviewers, who are either members of the editorial panel of the journal, regular reviewers for the journal, or persons whose work is significantly referenced in the article. Double-blind reviewing is common, but not universal. In that system the names of authors and reviewers are not disclosed to one another, the aim being to get an impartial assessment. (If the field of research is narrow, the reviewers may be able to guess the author's identity fairly accurately anyway. The procedure is not entirely foolproof.) Typically, reviewers are asked to return a decision in one of four categories:

(i) accept the article for publication without revision;

(ii) accept the article, subject to certain specified modifications being made;

(iii) reject the article, but recommend that the author rework, restructure, or extend the piece, because it contains important material;

or (iv) reject the article outright, because it contains little if anything that can be salvaged.

The editor usually abides by the reviewers' recommendations. In the event of a split vote, the editor may personally reread the paper and make the final decision taking into account the reviewers' comments, or may send it out to a third reviewer.

STEP 3 The author is notified as to the decision. Even if the article is accepted unconditionally, the author may still be given opportunity to make some small final revisions. Any copyright transfer forms are signed at this stage, and sometimes the order for offprints placed.

STEP 4 Production begins, and for many journals the action and control shift from the office of the journal editor to that of the publisher's copy editor. The text is typeset, and plates made for the diagrams, illustrations, or photographs. All communications are between author and the production office.

STEP 5 Proofs are sent to the author for final checking, but not for revision or rewriting. (Offprints are sometimes ordered at this point, instead of at step 3). Apart from page numbers, the article will now look almost exactly as it will finally appear in print, and the author will know precisely which issue of the journal it is scheduled for, and when to expect it.

The timetable varies from journal to journal, and depends in the early stages on the efficiency of the reviewers. Acknowledgement that the editor has received the manuscript should arrive within a week or two. If the receipt card shows an official manuscript number, assigned by the editor as part of a system for keeping track of manuscripts, be sure to quote it in any correspondence. It is important to keep copies of all letters you send to an editor, and to file all return correspondence. The review period usually takes from one to four months. Occasionally things go wrong: the vote is split, a reviewer misplaces or forgets about the manuscript or goes on vacation, or the manuscript goes astray in the mail. Editors are sensitive to authors' aspirations, and are embarrassed at making authors wait a long time for a decision. If you have had no reply in about five months, inquire from the editor as to when you might expect to hear the decision.

File away all reviewers' reports, favourable or unfavourable. The favourable ones may be useful later in your career (along with citation reports) to document the quality of your published work. From time to time review the unfavourable reports to see if there are any recurring patterns in the criticism of your work which if eliminated would help you become more successful and efficient.

12 Foul Play

All editors and most reviewers regard an author's manuscript as a privileged document, which cannot be appropriated, plagiarized, cited, replied to before publication, or used in any other manner without the author's knowledge or permission. Fortunately, misuse of access to unpublished material is rare. When it does occur, the editor will usually see to it that the matter is brought out into the open and the pirate named.

The double-blind refereeing procedure allows a hostile reviewer to reject a competing work or theory, or a result that is not supportive of the reviewer's position, for totally spurious reasons. Consider the following explanation of how reviewers can be so motivated. In time, particular theories and ideologies become entrenched in a discipline, becoming so much a part of it that they eventually border on dogma. To mount a serious challenge to such constitutive elements requires competence of the first order. The magnitude of the problem is directly proportional to the difference between the theory and the challenge. Something just ahead of its time is called original, but something that breaks entirely new ground and is a long way ahead of its time may be seen as a threat to or a personal attack on leaders in the field. Obviously, an editor will have difficulty trying to find unbiased and somewhat openminded reviewers for papers that are in conflict with the orthodox view, especially when reviewers see their role as gatekeepers for the discipline.

On the other side of the coin, it is the author who is culpable. Plagiarism, fictitious, falsified, or highly selected data, and dishonest research tactics characterize what some authors fraudulently submit for publication. Another strategy is to submit half a dozen articles with different titles to different journals, the articles being nothing more than thinly disguised variations on a theme arising from a single piece of research. Sometimes the papers share paragraphs or tables of results, and differ from one another by an amount just sufficient to escape the "identical" label. Every conceivable view is taken of the data, each one forming the basis of a new article. Although the practice is probably unstoppable, it represents either a bad case of narcissism or blatant opportunism. The kindest thing that can be said for it is that it is a waste of paper.

The point of this section is not to inject a note of pessimism but simply to alert potential authors to the existence of a darker side to publication.

III PRODUCING THE MANUSCRIPT

This chapter is not a substitute for a writer's manual, of which many are available. Neither does it contain advice on how to choose a research topic or problem, or on how to engage in empirical research or theoretical scholarship. Specialist volumes exist for these purposes.

1 Writing

There are three aspects to be kept in mind in writing for publication: topic, treatment and target. The topic should be important and current, not trivial or done to death in the past decade. Ask yourself: what is the significance of what I am saying? Is it of merely parochial interest? Are there generalizable elements in it that would be of value to a wide readership? Ask a colleague for an opinion as to whether the topic seems worth pursuing. Try to anticipate the average reader's reaction to the topic or issue. The editor has to do this, and cannot afford to publish material of marginal value. State the problem or theme in the first sentence or two, and do not wander off it into unprofitable byways. Avoid double themes.

The treatment should match the intention, which is to communicate something important. The paper should be complete in itself, and productive of further thinking or research by others. The length of the paper should be suited to the study. In some cases, a Research Note, Craft Report, or Comment may be all that is necessary. There are plenty of examples of short papers that have had a sizable impact in a field. In general, authors and editors have opposite views as to appropriate length. Authors seem to like room to move, editors vote for cogency and conciseness. If your study is of small-scale field research, ask seriously what other readers will want to know about it. Is it the findings? The methodology? The theoretical issues raised? Where you intend some principles to be seen as generalizable, state explicitly how they apply to other cases.

Aim for a direct, vigorous writing style that is at the same time authoritative (but not authoritarian). If you find your writing becoming jargonized, verbose, pretentious, or dull, take time off to read work of an author whose work communicates well through the power of its prose. In non-discursive articles, numbered "Remarks" may be a way to make a set of punchy observations or points. They save words, and because they are numbered, link sentences for continuity are unnecessary.

Assume that your article will be sent to referees who are 100% familiar with the general area of your paper, but only 50% familiar with the particular problem or issue you take up. Write for those "50%" referees. They constitute the first hurdle. The last thing a busy referee wants to do is wade through 30 pages of turgid prose that camouflages the main point.

Polish, and repolish, your work. Two weeks' work now may save you three months' delay and a negative decision. Few articles are so urgent that they cannot wait for a few extra weeks. A good practice is to put the article away for two or three weeks when you think it is completed. When you reread it after that interval, you will know if your judgment is sound. In general, the degree of improvement in overall quality by consistent polishing is out of all proportion to the time it takes. Changing a word here, choosing a better phrase there, shifting a sentence or two, transposing a paragraph, eliminating a favourite clause, or simply reducing verbiage can all lead to dramatic improvements in how well the article communicates.

Finally, it is important to know your potential audience. This means having a fairly clear idea of the one or two journals that would be appropriate targets for your article, and keeping these in mind as you write. Remember that many articles are rejected as inappropriate for the journal to which they are submitted. Some of this can be explained by researchers' writing first, and thinking about audiences second.

2 Title and Abstract

Many a person will decide whether to obtain and read your article on the basis of the title or what you write in the abstract. In the title, be informative, but brief (12 words or fewer). Choose words carefully but be neither poetic, cryptic, nor clever. Include the key words that describe your study. (Exceptions to this advice would be when the article is a rejoinder and a play on words is appropriate, when an intriguing quote from a subject is too good to pass over, or when an old adage is turned on its head.) In the abstract, restrict yourself to the length designated by the journal (50 to 150 words). Use short, crisp sentences with plain words. Summarize clearly what your study is about. If a conclusion is reached, state it concisely in the last sentence.

It is often helpful if you compose the title and the abstract early in the process of writing. This provides a definite focus to keep you on target. When you have completed the article, revise both title and abstract to make sure that what they promise is what the article delivers.

3 Nonsexist Language

Referring to particular classes of people (for example, occupational groups) by gender stereotypes is outlawed by many journals and publishers. So is the use of gender-specific nouns to refer to humanity in general. Specific guidelines on how to use certain generic nouns, and how to avoid using masculine or feminine pronouns except when referring to particular persons, are contained in publishers' style manuals. If you are not skilled in this area, your first efforts may contain circumlocutions and awkward sentence constructions. These can be overcome with practice so that the prose flows smoothly. As non-sexist language becomes the normal pattern, the older style will appear increasingly as the exception.

4 Footnotes

Except where footnotes are part of the standard apparatus of writing in a particular discipline, avoid them. If the material is interesting and important (some say that what is in the footnotes is the most interesting part of a paper), incorporate it into the text. Any intelligent reader can cope with minor asides, diversions, and explanations, and return to the main theme without having the extras physically separated. Footnotes are a bother to typeset (often the font is different) and can almost always be avoided altogether.

5 References and Bibliography

Every significant idea that is not your own, and every quotation, must have its source acknowledged by a reference in the text. Journals differ in the way these are to be indicated. Some common ways are, a superscript Arabic numeral, the original author's (name, year), or (name + superscript). Follow the journal style exactly. The publication details of the original source are given either as footnotes or in a reference list at the end of the article. Again the format for the journal has to be followed precisely.

Do not reference anything that is common knowledge, and do not load your paper with references or quotations in the belief that it is a mark of scholarship. References are there primarily to acknowledge significant sources, and to help the reader follow up a line of thought. But they do impede the flow of reading, and give your work the appearance of a "compiled" undergraduate essay if overused. Strike a balance between pedantry and the rightful acknowledgement of all intellectual debts.

Occasionally you may not be able to gain access to the original document in which some important element or quote appears, your knowledge of it having come by way of a secondary source. In this case, you should refer to the material as "cited in" (the secondary source), and not list the primary reference alone. At the final stage of proofreading your manuscript, check the reference list against the original documents once more and ensure that the record

is letter perfect. This includes using an original author's spelling and punctuation, even if it does not agree exactly with the house style of the journal in which you are publishing. Capitalization of words should, however, conform to the house style. Check volume number, issue number if appropriate, exact title of the article and the journal, the year of publication, and the page numbers. It is most frustrating to readers (and to librarians who deal with inter-library loans) to have mistakes in the references.

If you have a choice, make your references to readily accessible or published works. Where the primary purpose of a reference is to allow the reader follow up a matter in more detail (rather than to simply acknowledge a debt), it is disconcerting to be referred to unpublished, limited circulation, or other fugitive documents, or to personal communications.

Distinct from a reference list is a bibliography, which lists works that were consulted and found to be helpful or relevant to the issue, but which are not specifically referenced in the text of the article. Bibliographies are appropriate to books, and occasionally to articles of a general nature, but are seldom necessary in research or scholarly articles.

6 Word Procesing

A computer-based system in which the text of an article or book is stored electronically and manipulated by means of keyboard commands is termed word processing. The computer may be a stand-alone machine made expressly for word processing, it may be a home (micro, or personal) computer with word processing facilities, or it may be a large (mainframe) computer to which are attached a number of terminals for simultaneous use by many clients.

In essence, a computer program is used to convert a source file into an output file. The source file consists of an electronic record of the text of the article interspersed with formatting commands or symbols that control all the aspects of layout. Commands exist for initiating new paragraphs, setting and resetting margins, centering headings, numbering pages, indenting, underlining, leaving space for diagrams, tabulating, right and left justifying, and so on. The word processing program reads this source file, interprets all the embedded layout commands, and creates a new file with the specified layout. All of the communicatcns with the computer are carried out using a keyboard and a visual display like a TV screen. All of the layout can be planned, executed, and checked on the screen. Only when everything is ready is a printing finally made on paper.

From the author's point of view, word processing provides a powerful way of creating an initial source file, and later editing and modifying it. New material can be inserted at any point, sections can be deleted, transposed, or reformatted at will, wholesale restructuring of the article can be made without retyping

the text, and corrections can be made to spelling, references, grammar, and layout direct from the keyboard. Source files are saved on disk for reuse and revision for as long as the paper is under development.

Dictionaries are often available with word processors. The dictionary may contain 60,000 of the most commonly used words (including derivatives), together with provision for the user to nominate and insert an additional 1,000 words. Each word in the manuscript can be compared with words in the dictionary as a spelling check, which is a great help in proofreading. (Of course, the process could not determine whether "causal" was meant instead of "casual", or make similar distinctions between legitimate words.) Editing facilities also make it easy to change all spellings of a word to accord with the conventions in the country of publication. The computer can search for every occurrence of "color" in the manuscript and change it to "colour".

Once the text in a file is corrected, it stays that way unless the author deliberately makes a change. This is a great advantage for two-finger typists, but is an important advance for document preparation in general. Interim prints of early versions of an article can be made on cheap computer paper. When the final article is ready, a top-quality print can be obtained on plain bond paper using film ribbon, equal to the quality obtained with the best electric typewriters. In fact, many of the best printers are element-head typewriters modified so that they can be driven by a computer. The output in some installations can be routed to a phototypesetter directly, so that the final product is typeset rather than typewritten. Book publishers at present sometimes inquire from an author if the text for the manuscript is available in electronic form on a magnetic tape or disk. If so, the publisher may be able to electronically read the file, replace the word processor commands with typesetting commands, and move directly into print form without reentering the text via a keyboard. This results in an enormous saving in keystrokes, and eliminates the introduction of new errors.

This guide was prepared using a word processor.

7 Internal Review

The purpose of internal review is to improve the quality of an article before it is submitted to a journal. The author is often too close to what is written to see any weaknesses. In particular, the intended meaning may be read into an argument or a discussion, in spite of the words. The internal reviewer is a critical friend who can help the author debug a paper.

The benefits of such a practice are obvious. Properly done, internal review improves the likelihood of acceptance, thereby reducing the damaging effects on one's confidence of having papers rejected. A few rejections in succession may result in such a loss

of confidence that further work seems futile. Better to have a supportive colleague's assistance. The second major advantage of internal review is that the common three-month wait to get feedback is short-circuited. If a paper contains defects, a few days getting a realistic appraisal from a colleague before submission saves a long delay. If you have no colleague who could help, arrange to exchange your work with that of an academic in the same field from another institution, to mutual benefit. However, do not overlook potential internal reviewers in your own division merely because their research or teaching interests do not coincide exactly with yours. It is often an advantage in testing your ability to communicate to work with someone who is slightly outside your own field. A diligent but partly naive reader will be able to alert you to places where you have take too much for granted.

As to the practice of internal review, getting or giving constructive criticism is easier said than done. Whether criticism is constructive or not depends on more than the intention of the internal reviewer. Taken literally, constructive criticism will not only point out what is wrong with an article, but suggest how it could be changed or restructured to make it better. That is, it makes a positive contribution.

When you invite a person to act as a surrogate reviewer, identify the journal to which you hope to submit the article (if possible, supply a copy of a recent issue), indicate the readership of the journal (whether practising professionals, researchers, or academics), and maybe ask the internal reviewer to make a recommendation and write a report after the style of a referee's report. Distinguish in your own mind between feedback on the article's argument, development, or presentation, and feedback on the mechanics of grammar, style, and spelling. Except in the very final stages of developing a manuscript, the first type of feedback is far and away the most important. If an internal reviewer feels it would be impertinent to comment on the overall structure or significance of the paper, gently insist on it. Checking the grammar and typing is by comparison a simple, routine matter which you can comfortably do yourself.

Encourage your internal reviewer to be honest rather than kind. If all you want is a pat on the back, it might save the reviewer a lot of time (and incidentally save a friendship) if you indicate that you are really looking for a bit of praise. A genuinely constructive approach to internal review, however, will strengthen rather than weaken collegiate relationships. In any case, the vast majority of academics are not regular referees for distinguished journals, and the evaluative experience associated with internal review will in most cases turn out to be helpful for the reviewer too. There is benefit for both parties. When you act as an internal reviewer yourself, try to give a turnaround time of one or two days maximum. That way you let the author see that you take internal reviewing seriously, and you get feedback to the author before much extra work has been done on the manuscript.

IV OFFERING THE PRODUCT

Once the manuscript is completed, the next step is to forward it to the editor. This chapter is about how to do it properly.

1 Submitting

Send the designated number of copies by fast, sure mail (such as first class airmail) to the editor. Check the current editor's name and address in the latest issue of the journal; also check whether the article should be submitted through an editor in your country (if an international journal) or through a specialized editor (who is responsible for a particular sub-field) if the scope of the journal is broad or interdisciplinary. Editors do not have the time or resources to make extra copies for sending to reviewers, so be sure to send the correct number, which is usually three, sometimes four, and occasionally five.

Read the journal's instructions carefully, and follow them to the letter. This applies also to photographs, tables, and figures. A few journals have the publisher's graphics department draw any diagrams from your sketches but the majority insist on camera-ready art, which may be black ink on white paper (with rub-down lettering, not typescript, for labels and legends), or black and white glossy prints. From the printer's point of view, one is not as good as the other. The publisher's requirements are dictated by the printing process used. Tables are often photoreduced directly from the author's tables. Your college or university may have a typesetting service on campus where you can get this done in such a way that the appearance is professional.

Some journals require that all copies except the editor's top copy have any references to the author's identity removed. The (removable) title page may have the author's name and affiliation on it, but the next page should contain the title only (and possibly the abstract). Anonymization also involves blanking out references to the author's previous or current work if this would make identification possible.

Properly adjusted quality photocopiers make copies practically indistinguishable from the original, on plain bond paper. Use these rather than carbon copies. When submitting overseas, type the original on an electric typewriter with a film (not cloth) ribbon, send away photocopies of first quality but keep the original. This allows you to make additional copies if the first journal rejects your manuscript, but this is an option only if your copier meets the "indistinguishable" criterion.

A simple letter after the following lines should accompany your manuscript.

1. Quote the article title and the name of the journal to which you are submitting it. Editors are occasionally associated with more than one journal.

2. Draw attention to any characteristics of the format of the text, such as symbols, anonymization, arrangements for artwork, tables, and any item you are not sure about.

3. Ask to be sent the referees' reports whether the article is accepted or not. Many, but not all, editors would forward them anyway.

4. Inquire about the current publication lag.

5. State what is to be done with the manuscript copies if the article is rejected. If the journal is based overseas, return airmail is too costly, surface mail too slow. The simplest thing is to advise the editor to dispose of the copies. Fresh photocopies are cheap.

6. If a word processor has been used to produce the article, advise the editor that a floppy disk or magnetic tape of the manuscript could be made available if necessary. This could facilitate phototypesetting in some instances, saving time and errors.

There are some things best avoided.

1. A statement of your qualifications or professional position will do nothing to improve the prospects of your paper. The editor may need to know details of these, especially when you write an opinion or policy statement from your position, for an "About the Author" note to be published along with your paper. However, neither editor nor reviewers can make use of a statement of your qualifications in judging the quality of your article, and they can be safely omitted.

2. Similarly, recommendations from colleagues, your supervisor, the project director, or the Dean as to how good your paper is will cut no ice. Each paper stands on its merits.

3. Footnotes acknowledging the valuable assistance given by five Professors Famous can be left out. Even if substantive or editorial assistance were given, your distinguished contacts may not necessarily wish to have their names appended to your paper. However, some acknowledgment of debts to colleagues for special insights or telling examples may be appropriate, provided the aim is to give due credit, not to influence a reviewer.

4. Finally, there is little point in giving your own assessment of how significant, important, or seminal your paper is. Even if all the good things you could write about your paper were true, the editor could not afford to give them any weight if the reviewing process is to work honestly and efficiently.

Should you submit a letter of inquiry to the editor first, to see if there would be any interest in publishing your paper? With few exception the answer is No. What an author would be hoping for is, of course, an unofficial commitment to publish, perhaps before the article is fully completed. The editor may be "interested" in the technical sense, but can hardly give any stronger indication without seeing the manuscript. The editor cannot screen or referee a description or an expression of intent. If the question were actually of a much simpler kind, that is, asking whether the journal in question publishes articles of the stated type, the author could surely settle that by perusing the most recent year or two of the journal's issues and exercising a bit of judgment. Better to devote the energy you would expend composing a letter of inquiry on improving the paper itself. (The matter is different with full-length books, where an author can reasonably make inquiries about a publisher's interest when the manuscript is only half completed.) Preliminary inquiries should, however, be made if the "Notice to Contributors" calls for it, or if the journal does not normally publish unsolicited material.

2 Multiple Submissions

Meaning: submitting to two or more journals simultaneously.

As a condition of submission, most journals insist that the article be not previously published, and that it is not, and will not be, under consideration by another journal at the same time. Given this policy, multiple submissions are clearly unethical. Furthermore, the author is placed in an invidious position in the event of multiple acceptances, and the situation with respect to copyright is messy.

Because the reviewing procedures are costly, multiple submissions are wasteful of time and energy, and are ultimately damaging to the economics of journal publishing as a whole. To discourage multiple submissions, some cognate journals exchange manuscript lists every month. Any offending articles are rejected without review.

3 Sequential Submissions

If an author has a technically sound article rejected by a journal, is there any point in subsequently submitting it elsewhere to another, equally appropriate, journal? How many submissions should be planned? This section contains an analysis of the problem, and shows the relative advantage of planning on sequential submissions. The development uses a probabilistic model on the

grounds that although individual referees do not operate randomly, probability provides an adequate macro-description of overall behaviour.

First a few assumptions. Suppose that p(R) is the subjective estimate of the probability that the article in question will satisfy the criteria of a single referee, and that the probability is the same for all referees. Suppose too that there are a number of journals to which the article is suited, that the article is sent initially to two referees who assess it independently, and that in the event of a split vote, the editor sends it to an additional referee for resolution. The table below shows the eventual probabilities of acceptance for a range of subjective probabilities. Strictly, the figures apply to acceptance by the first journal, acceptance by the second, or acceptance by both, in the case of two submissions (and similarly for three, four, or five submissions). In practice of course, one would not submit to a second journal if the first accepted.

The correct interpretation of the table is as follows: if the probability that a given referee will accept the paper is 0.7, the probability of acceptance when two submissions are made is 0.95, reading across the seventh row. (It is incorrect to say though that if the first journal does not accept a paper, the probability is 0.95 that the second one will. That involves conditional probability, and is not covered here.)

When the content of the paper is highly controversial or challenges established thinking, a low estimate of the referee's probability might be necessary, and the author should expect to have to make several submissions. Note that the greatest relative advantage for double submission is for a referee's probability of 0.5.

	Number of submissions planned				
p(R)	1	2	3	4	5
0.1	0.03	0.06	0.08	0.11	0.13
0.2	0.10	0.20	0.28	0.36	0.42
0.3	0.22	0.39	0.52	0.62	0.70
0.4	0.35	0.58	0.73	0.82	0.89
0.5	0.50	0.75	0.88	0.94	0.97
0.6	0.65	0.88	0.96	0.98	0.99
0.7	0.78	0.95	0.99	(1)	(1)
0.8	0.90	0.99	(1)	(1)	(1)
0.9	0.97	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)

Note: (1) indicates a calculated probability which when rounded to two decimals is unity.

4 Galley and Page Proofs

These are the trial print sheets made immediately after typesetting. The text may be broken into pages (page proofs), or consist of a long ribbon of print (galleys), which will later be pasted up into pages. The important thing is not the format but the text. As author, this will be your last opportunity to see your article before it is printed and bound into a journal issue.

Galley proofs are usually forwarded to the author for checking. The exception is when author and publisher are separated by one or more oceans, or the mails are uncertain. In this case, you may be asked to nominate a person in the country of publication who will do the proofreading on your behalf, or the editor may offer to do it. If the publisher wants you to use standard proofreader's symbols for corrections, a sheet will be supplied. Otherwise use common sense and write in pencil in the margin.

Proofread in two directions. Read it forward for sense, watching particularly for mixed up sentences, words omitted, or lines misplaced. If possible, have a friend read the original manuscript while you read the galley. (Read from the manuscript to the galley, not the other way round.) Failing that, read the galley aloud, slowly, and literally. Everything has to make perfect sense. Then read it backward, word by word, preferably aloud, checking spelling. This is boring but effective. You are less likely to miss typsetting errors this way, because the order of the words will be meaningless, and you will not be reading your expectations into the text.

The timeline at this stage of production is critical. Assume that the editor has a firm date with the printer, and that there is an absolute necessity to have a full issue in the printer's hands on the day. One way for editors to achieve this is to slightly overbook each issue -- have seven papers typeset for a six-paper issue. The first six papers returned to the editor get the green light; the seventh is held over to the next issue, perhaps three months away. As a rule of thumb, get the galleys back into the mails within 24 hours of receipt. Next to teaching your classes, consider correcting the galleys top priority.

The galley stage is not the time to make changes to the text, major or minor. It is to enable you to check for yourself the accuracy of the typesetting. A common rule is that the author is responsible for any alterations above and beyond 5% of the original costs of composition. This does not mean you can change 5% of the text, because the insertion of additional material early in an article may result in consequential changes in the layout of the rest of the paper. A single change can use up two or three times your allowance as the effects are shuffled down the text. If you absolutely must make a change, make the substitute as nearly as possible the same number of characters as the original. That way, the effects may not extend beyond the paragraph.

Alternative arrangements excepted, if you have not sighted the galleys within a month or two of when the editor said you should expect them, write a note inquiring if they have been sent.

5 Offprints

Offprints (also called reprints) of your article are normally available soon after the issue in which it appears is published. Offprints are ordered either immediately after acceptance when the copyright agreement is signed, or when the galley proofs are sent. Ordinarily they cannot be ordered after publication. The editor or publisher will send you an order form with a schedule of costs.

Commercially published journals usually supply the author with a number of complimentary offprints (ranging from 5 to 50) plus one or two copies of the journal issue. Additional offprints may be ordered and paid for. For break-even journals the author is usually obliged to pay for all offprints. Not counting any free ones, the usual cost of offprints without covers for an article that prints 5-12 pages is between 30c and $1 when the order is for 50 or more. Covers cost more, large orders (say 500) cost proportionately much less.

Offprints are useful (i) for informing and making a friendly gesture towards colleagues working in the same field at different institutions, (ii) for sending to persons who request a copy of your article, having read about it in an index or abstraction service, and (iii) for use with your own students. It is difficult to advise how many to order, but 50 is often enough. Incurable optimists might order 200 (as long as long-term storage space is no problem). Given the availability of inter-library loans and photocopiers in academia, requests for offprints are not as numerous as one might expect (or hope). Requests from other countries are, of course, exciting to get and fun to fulfil.

6 Grievances

If you feel that the reviewers have given your paper improper treatment, several courses of action lie open to you. Suppose the reviewers have apparently missed the key points of your study. The fault probably lies in the clarity of your presentation rather than in the incapacity of a reviewer to understand. In other words, if a reviewer has not grasped the article's significance the problem lies not in the perversity of the reviewer but is staring you in the face. You have failed to communicate. Go to work on a revision in the frame of mind: What I am trying to convey in my paper is... .

A second possibility is that the reviewers have made some false assumptions about the study, or have based their reviews on false information. Have a colleague read through your article and the reviewers' reports to check the validity of any comments. It is, of course, possible for reviewers to be in error. If you can confirm this, a letter to the editor, setting out the facts of the matter in

clear and unemotional terms, might bring an invitation for you to resubmit. Probably a better policy would be to revise the paper (any paper can be improved), anticipate and respond to the objections about your theme, argument, methodology, or inferences, and submit the manuscript elsewhere.

The third avenue exists only for those journals that have formal grievance procedures set up by the publisher or the sponsoring association. Authors who have grounds for believing that a manuscript has been reviewed in a careless, unprofessional, or dishonest manner can lodge a complaint with the publisher or association executive.

7 Coping with Rejections

Rejections always sting. Remember that what is rejected is something you have written, and although an article feels like an extension of your person, it is not you. Literally, an article consists of black marks on white paper. A rejection is ego bruising; do not let it become devastating. Even the best authors get rejections from time to time. It has also happened that what eventually becomes a seminal paper in a field starts out its life getting rejected.

Do not immediately commit the article and everything associated with it to the flames. Keep it all, and give yourself a week or two to get over the shock. The immediate aim should be to put some distance between yourself and the article so that you can think rationally about it again in relation to the reviewers' reports. Without a degree of detachment, you retain all the emotional investment in the paper as it was originally written.

Then decide. Go back over the referees' comments carefully. They are seldom quite as damning as when first read -- and often, even if generally negative, suggest how something from the paper can be retrieved. If the article has been rejected for technical reasons (such as some absent statistics, or a non-fatal flaw in an argument), revise the paper and resubmit it to the same journal along with a letter to the editor explaining how you have met the objections. Otherwise do one of three things: (i) admit the validity of the referees' comments, especially if they say the topic is interesting but not important enough to publish, but still put the paper on the back burner, with a note in your diary to come back to it a few months later, (ii) begin immediately on restructuring or rewriting it, or (iii) refine it, and send it to another, perhaps more appropriate journal.

Resolve to learn from the experience by taking the referees' reports seriously. After making a number of submissions (successful or otherwise) you will notice that while referees may be unanimous in their recommendations about an article they often give different reasons for them. Refereeing itself is not always easy, and referees have their own preferences in addition to the criteria laid down by the journal editor.

8 A Checklist

This checklist summarizes most of the points about manuscript preparation made in the body of the guide. When each of the following questions can be answered in the affirmative, your article is probably ready to go.

Substantive aspects

Is the topic or subject of the paper significant, or important? Is it of more than parochial interest? Are there generalizable elements?

Has the theoretical or practical relevance of the article been stated plainly?

Is there a good match between the problem or issue and the approach or method of investigation?

Are all assertions adequately supported? Is there evidence of scholarship, and of being up to date?

Are all sources of quotes and ideas acknowledged? Is the paper free of plagiarism? Is the article trim, containing only references and quotations that are necessary?

Are the examples pertinent and described well?

Literary aspects

Does the paper use English appropriate to academic writing? Is it elegant?

Is the writing style lively and direct? Have plain words been preferred to fancy? Short to long? Have redundancies, repetitions, or circumlocutions been eliminated? Does the language flow? Is it interesting and fresh? Is the meaning of all terms and sentences clear?

Does the tone appear authoritative rather than derived? Original rather than compiled?

Is the paper free of red herrings and non-essential asides?

Have platitudes, throwaway lines, and truisms been avoided?

Have hedge words and unnecessary qualifiers been eliminated? Has jargon been translated into ordinary English?

Does the length of the article match the significance of the topic?

Is the theme unitary, with a clear line of argument or development? Is it persuasive?

Are realistic expectations set up for the reader by the end of the first paragraph?

Have all elements of presumptuous, emotive, high handed, or condescending language been eliminated?

Having begun, will the reader want to keep reading?

Mechanical aspects

Is the article appropriate for the target journal?

Does it conform to the journal's:
spelling conventions?
referencing system (in and out of text)?
footnoting?
length limits?
anonymization requirements?
artwork, diagrams, and tables specifications?

Have references been checked against the originals?

Has the article been read by an internal reviewer?

Has it been proofread forward and backward?

V FINAL WORD

It is fun to get an article published. Double fun to get something significant published in a distinguished journal. Besides the professional satisfaction, there are in many instances tangible rewards in terms of professional advancement. But if you are in the game only for the latter, your work may appear stuffy and mechanical as if it came from a production line. What and how you publish reflects, and affects, your outlook on life.

Publication is a fixed-sum game. The total number of journals is fixed (approximately). The number of issues each year is fixed. The number of pages is fixed. And the number of words is fixed. Therefore, if your article is to go in, another has to go out. This guide has been written to help increase the prospects of getting your article in.

Be prepared to be a good loser. Even the most renowned researchers and authors back occasional duds. When you get a rejection slip, do not take it personally. Be resilient. Keep your sense of proportion. Above all, do not take the publication game too seriously.

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